



# Surface molecule induced effective light absorption and charge transfer for H<sub>2</sub> production photocatalysis in a carbonized polymer dots-carbon nitride system

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## ABSTRACT

Current sunlight-powered H<sub>2</sub> production that employ carbonized polymer dots (CPDs)-graphitic carbon nitride (g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>) systems has made significant progress. However, we still have a limited understanding of the mechanism by which CPDs contribute to the photocatalytic efficiency. Surface molecule 1,2,3,5-tetrahydro-5-oxo-imidazo[1,2-*a*]pyridine-7-carboxylic acid (IPCA) has been verified to largely impact the photophysical properties of CPDs. Here, we report the design of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, IPCA-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and CPDs-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> catalysts to uncover the critical role of IPCA. The photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> production rates of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> were improved by the hybridization with IPCA and CPDs (1172 ± 39; 2150 ± 92 vs. 828 ± 121 μmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>, respectively). The DFT calculations further unraveled that electron transfer pathway in IPCA-CN@H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> followed IPCA → g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> → H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> procedure. The results indicate that IPCA on CPDs is conducive to extending the light-responsive range, redistributing of photoinduced electron-hole pairs, increasing the electron density of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, and thus improving H<sub>2</sub> generation rates.

## 1. Introduction

Driven by the prospect of addressing both worldwide energy shortage and environmental contamination issues, the exploitation of clean and renewable energy is attracting enormous interests [1,2]. Hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>) is an ultimate clean and sustainable energy source, allowing for an energy cycle free of greenhouse gas. Thus, H<sub>2</sub> is regarded as an ideal replacement for depleting fossil fuel reserves. Much attention has been paid to the research of H<sub>2</sub> [3–5]. Production of H<sub>2</sub> from water splitting using inexhaustible solar energy is one of the most promising solutions to the growing demand for energy and associated environmental concerns [6,7]. Tremendous efforts have been dedicated to photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> production, surely making significant achievements over the past few years [8–10]. Bearing the above in mind, it is suggested that the photocatalyst holds the key to the photocatalytic reactions. Thus, seeking low-cost and environmentally benign photocatalysts with sufficiently high activity and stability remains the core challenge [11].

Carbon dots (CDs) are increasingly explored as novel nanomaterials for their promising applications in the fields of optoelectronic devices

[12], bio-imaging [13], catalysis [14–16], etc. A new classification of CDs, named carbonized polymer dots (CPDs) is revealed as an emerging class of CDs with distinctive polymer/carbon hybrid structures and properties [17–19]. Due to the electron-withdrawing and -donating properties, CPDs are further proved to be the co-catalytic active site to improve photocatalytic activity [20]. Graphitic carbon nitride (g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>) with a poly-(tri-s-triazine) (polyheptazine) building block (often referred as melon) has recently emerged as an attractive visible-light absorber and can generate H<sub>2</sub> photocatalytically [21–24]. Given the poor light-harvesting performance and catalytic activity, lots of skilled incorporation techniques have been developed for manufacturing efficient composites [25,26]. The suitable structure and ultrahigh stability make g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> an ideal host for robustly accommodating CPDs [27].

Much less is known on the precise structure or co-catalytic mechanism of CPDs as researchers primarily focus on the graphitic sp<sup>2</sup> carbonaceous cores [28,29]. Recently, Yang's group have investigated the photoluminescent mechanism of CPDs which were prepared using citric acid and ethylenediamine as precursors, and identified the molecular emission center of a citrazinic acid derivative 1,2,3,

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5-tetrahydro-5-oxo-imidazo[1,2- $\alpha$ ]pyridine-7-carboxylic acid (denoted as IPCA) [30]. The optical properties of CPDs are strongly dependent on the covalently-bound/encapsulated IPCA and its analogs [30–33]. And the surface molecule IPCA also acts as the isolated conjugating units to provide CPDs with new energy levels [34]. It is fundamental to understand the essence of surface-functional-molecule, which contributes to smart design of high-performance photocatalyst.

In this study, we report the design and synthesis of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, IPCA-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (IPCA-CN) and CPDs-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (CPDs-CN) catalysts (Scheme 1). The aim of this work is to identify the crucial roles of surface molecule IPCA, commonly observed in CPDs from the pyrolysis citric acid and amines, in enhancing photocatalytic performance in a CPDs-CN system. Upon the hybridization of IPCA and CPDs, improved photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> production activity of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> were observed (1172  $\pm$  39; 2150  $\pm$  92 vs. 828  $\pm$  121  $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ , respectively). We further employed theoretical calculations based on density functional theory (DFT) to elucidate the underlying mechanism of the catalytic efficiency improvement.

## 2. Experimental section

### 2.1. Reagents

All reagents were obtained from commercial suppliers and used without further purification. Citric acid (CA) was purchased from Aladdin. Ethylenediamine (EDA) was purchased from Alfa Aesar. Dicyandiamide (DCD) was purchased from Aladdin Industrial Corporation. Selenium (Se) was purchased from Shanghai Macklin Biochemical Co., Ltd. Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> was obtained from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent. Chloroplatinic acid (H<sub>2</sub>PtCl<sub>6</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O) was purchased from Energy Chemical. Deionized (DI) water (> 18 M $\Omega$  cm) were generated via a Milli-Q system. Other organic solvents were purchased from Beijing Chemical Works.

### 2.2. Synthesis

#### 2.2.1. Synthesis of CPDs

CPDs was synthesized via a modified method according to our previous work with some modifications [35]. Briefly, 192 mg of CA (1.0 mmol) and 67  $\mu\text{L}$  of EDA (1.0 mmol) were dissolved in 10 mL of deionized water. Then, the solution was transferred to a poly (tetrafluoroethylene) (Teflon)-lined autoclave (25 mL) and heated at 200 °C for 6 h. After cooling down, the product was subjected to dialysis with molecular weight cut off 500–1000. The brown powder CPDs was finally

obtained by freeze-drying.

#### 2.2.2. Synthesis of IPCA

IPCA was synthesized by the hydrothermal method and purified by column chromatography in accordance with previously published work [30]. Methanol/ethyl acetate (2:1) was selected as the eluent.

#### 2.2.3. Synthesis of CPDs-CN-x

The synthetic procedure was based on previous work [36]. Typically, the mixture of 10 g DCD and 1 g Se powder were dispersed in 50 mL ethanol, stirred for 1 h at room temperature, and dried at 60 °C oven. Then, the mixture was annealed at 650 °C for 3 h in static air atmosphere in a muffle furnace. Thereafter, 100 mg of the powder was added to x mL (x = 3 or 7) of CPDs solution (1 mg mL<sup>-1</sup>) and water was added to a total volume of 10 mL. Subsequently, the mixture was transferred to a Teflon-lined autoclave (25 mL) and heated at 180 °C for 6 h. After the reaction, the reactors were cooled to room temperature naturally. The product was centrifuged and washed with DI water for three times and dried at 60 °C oven. The final products were obtained and denoted as CPDs-CN-x, where x denotes the amount of CPDs relative to that of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> [x (wt%) = CPDs/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>  $\times$  100]. CPDs-CN-7 was referred as CPDs-CN unless otherwise stated.

#### 2.2.4. Synthesis of IPCA-CN

The synthetic procedure was similar to that of CPDs-CN, except that CPDs was replaced with IPCA solution (2 mL, 1 mg mL<sup>-1</sup>).

#### 2.2.5. Synthesis of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>

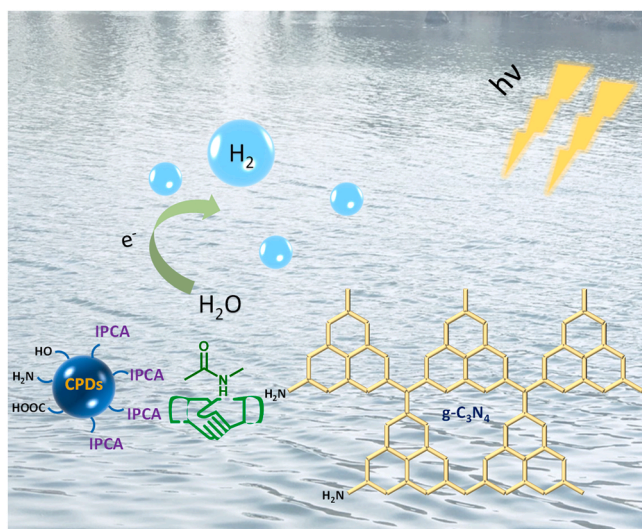
The synthetic procedure was similar to that of CPDs-CN, except that CPDs was replaced 10 mL of DI water.

### 2.3. Characterization

The ultraviolet-visible (UV–vis) absorption spectra were obtained using a Shimadzu 3100 UV–vis spectrophotometer. The UV–vis DRS spectra were acquired on a UV/VIS/NIR spectrophotometer (Lambda 950, Perkinelmer). And the absorption spectra were calculated from the reflectance data with the Kubelka-Munk function. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) were performed on a JEM-2100 F at an accelerating voltage of 200 kV. <sup>1</sup>H NMR and <sup>13</sup>C NMR spectra were performed with AS 400 (Q.One Instruments Ltd., 400 MHz). X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were conducted with Cu K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda$  = 1.5406 Å) operating at 40 kV and 40 mA with a fixed slit (PANalytical B.V. Empyrean). Steady-state fluorescence spectra and fluorescence decay curves were collected on FLS 920 (Edinburgh Instrument). The XPS spectra were conducted on Thermo ESCALAB-250Xi spectrometer with a mono X-ray source with Al K $\alpha$  excitation. Synchronous illumination X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (SIXPS) characterization was used to investigate the electron density changes on prepared samples under irradiation using R3000/VUV5K/MX-650 (PREVAC, Poland) system. In the process of measurements, the changes of XPS spectra were recorded by controlling light on or off. A 300 W xenon lamp (CEL-HXF300, Beijing Ceaulight Technology Co., Ltd., China) was equipped with an air mass 1.5 global (AM 1.5G, 100 mW cm<sup>-2</sup>) filter or a 420 nm cutoff filter.

### 2.4. Electrochemical characterization

Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) and transient photocurrent response measurements were carried out in a conventional three electrode cell (CH Instruments, Chenhua, Shanghai, China). The working electrodes were prepared as follows: the photocatalyst (2 mg mL<sup>-1</sup>) was dispersed in ethanol and then spin-coated onto FTO glass (1  $\times$  1 cm<sup>2</sup>). After air-drying for 2 h, the working electrode was further dried in the oven at 60 °C to improve adhesion. Pt-electrode was employed as counter electrode. Ag/AgCl electrode was used as reference electrode. EIS experiments were performed within a frequency range



**Scheme 1.** Schematic illustration for the design and synthesis of composite photocatalyst and the photocatalytic water splitting for H<sub>2</sub> production.

from  $10^{-1}$  Hz to  $2 \times 10^5$  Hz. The photocurrent-time dependence was measured under chopped irradiation with 30 s light on/off cycles.  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$  solution (0.1 M) was used as the electrolyte in the electrochemical experiments.

## 2.5. Photocatalytic reaction

The photocatalytic experiments were prepared in reaction cell by first dispersing the as-prepared catalysts (20 mg) in aqueous TEOA solutions (10 vol%, 5 mL) by sonication treatment. Prior to illumination, the reactor is deaerated by evacuation to assure vacuum environment with stirring for 20 min. And then the suspension was irradiated from the top of the reaction cell through a quartz window a 300 W xenon lamp. During irradiation, the temperature was maintained at  $6^\circ\text{C}$  by a flow of cooling water and the samples were constantly stirred. The amount of generated  $\text{H}_2$  was analyzed using an online gas chromatograph (GC-7920, high purity  $\text{N}_2$  as carrier gas) every half an hour. Thermal conductivity detection (TCD) was used to quantify  $\text{H}_2$  productions in the headspace during photocatalysis. Pt-cocatalyst was synthesized via in situ photo-deposition by adding a unique amount of  $\text{H}_2\text{PtCl}_6 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  aqueous solution as a precursor and the deposition amount of metallic Pt was 2 wt%.

## 2.6. Apparent quantum yield determination

The wavelength-dependent apparent quantum yield (AQY) was measured with a similar device. The difference was that AM 1.5G filter was replaced with the corresponding monochromatic-light filters. The irradiation area was  $\sim 12.56\text{ cm}^2$ . The total intensity of irradiation was measured by an irradiation meter (CEL-FZ-A). The evolved headspace

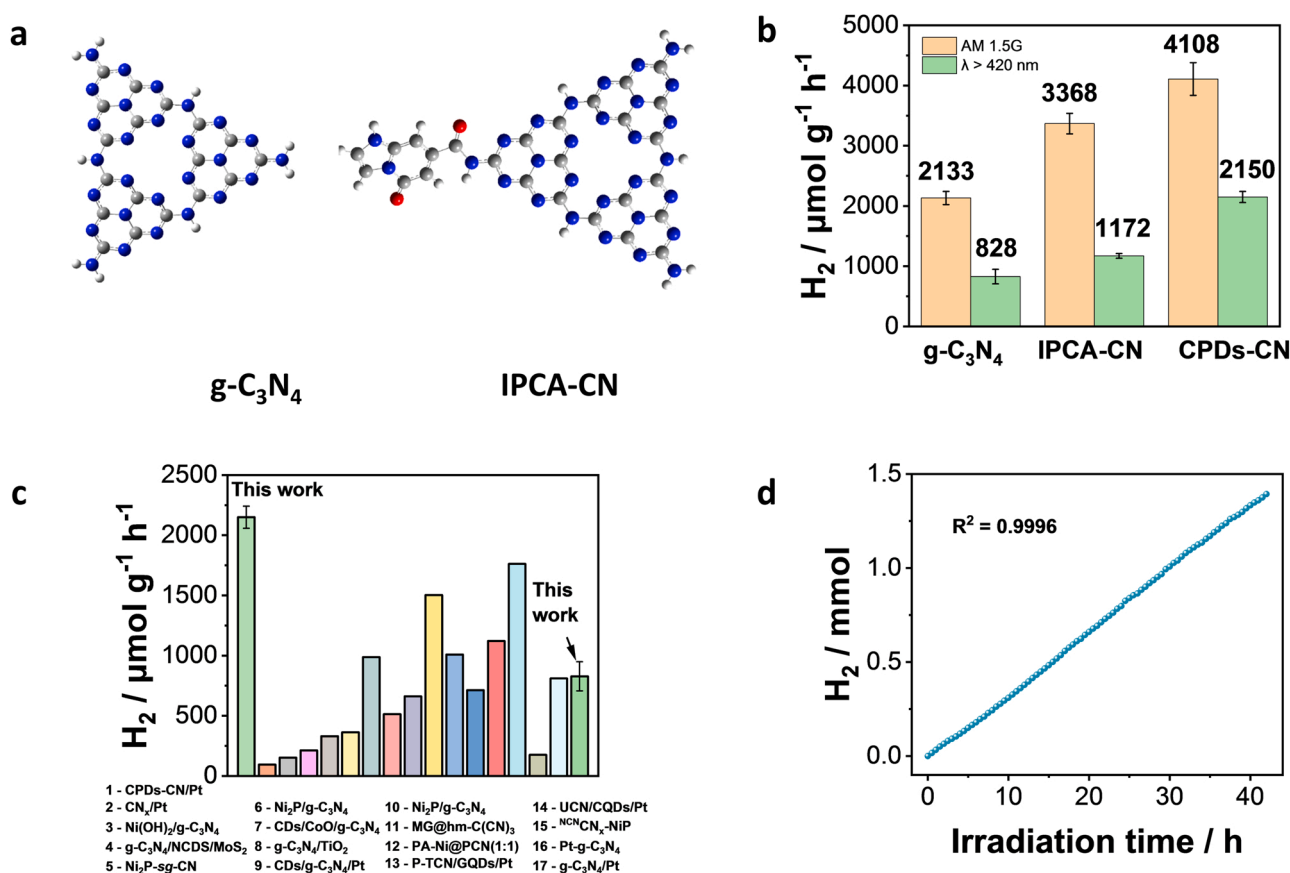
gas was analyzed by gas chromatography and the AQY (%) calculated via Eq. (1):

$$\text{AQY}(\%) = 100 \times \frac{2n_{\text{H}_2}N_Ahc}{t_{\text{irr}}\lambda IA} \quad (1)$$

Where  $n_{\text{H}_2}$  is the moles of  $\text{H}_2$  generated,  $N_A$  Avogadro's constant ( $6.02 \times 10^{23}\text{ mol}^{-1}$ ),  $h$  is the Planck constant ( $6.63 \times 10^{-34}\text{ J s}$ ),  $c$  is the speed of light ( $3 \times 10^8\text{ m s}^{-1}$ ),  $t_{\text{irr}}$  the irradiation time (s),  $\lambda$  the wavelength of incident monochromatic light (m),  $I$  the light intensity ( $\text{W m}^{-2}$ ) and  $A$  the cross-sectional area of irradiation ( $\text{m}^2$ ).

## 2.7. Computational details

In this work, we use IPCA as the model of CPDs and g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$  is used to mimic the graphitic carbon nitride (g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ ). The details for the structures could be found in Fig. 1a. All the calculations were performed using the density functional theory (DFT) within Gaussian 16 package [37]. The equilibrium geometries of g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$  and IPCA-CN were optimized using the B3LYP functional [38,39] and the 6-31 G(d) basis set [40]. For the calculations on g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4@H_3O^+$  and IPCA-CN@ $H_3O^+$  complexes, different binding site of  $H_3O^+$  interacting with g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$  and IPCA-CN were compared and the best site was found at the top region of g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$  above C atom. The UV-vis absorption spectrum and the excited state calculations were performed using TDDFT with the optimized geometries at B3LYP/6-31G(d) level.



**Fig. 1.** a) The structure models of g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$  and IPCA-CN. Color code: grey C; blue N; white H; red O. b) Photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2$  production rates from water splitting. c) Comparison of the photocatalytic activities of catalysts for  $\text{H}_2$  generation reported in the literatures; details as the Table S1. d) Long term photocatalytic performance towards  $\text{H}_2$  evolution over CPDs-CN catalyst under visible light irradiation (42 h,  $\lambda > 420\text{ nm}$ ,  $6^\circ\text{C}$ ).

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Photocatalytic properties

The photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2$  generation systems were assembled in a photoreactor by dispersing catalyst powders in an aqueous solution of the sacrificial electron donor triethanolamine (TEOA). The results were summarized in Fig. 1b.  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  generated  $\text{H}_2$  with a production rate of  $2133 \pm 109 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$  under simulated sunlight irradiation. The increase in photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2$  production rate was observed to be  $3368 \pm 171 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$  on IPCA-CN. CPDs-CN had the  $\text{H}_2$  production rate of  $4108 \pm 271 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ . Under visible irradiation ( $\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$ ), the photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2$  evolution rates reached  $828 \pm 121$ ,  $1172 \pm 39$  and  $2150 \pm 92 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ , respectively. Notably, photo- $\text{H}_2$  generation with CPDs-CN catalyst was also proved to be significantly higher than that previously reported with  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -composite systems (Fig. 1c and Table S1). The AQY was measured to evaluate the light utilization efficiency for  $\text{H}_2$  evolution under the illumination of monochromatic light. In Fig. S1, AQY decreased with increasing wavelength, which achieved 2.5% at 420 nm and 0.22% at 500 nm. Fig. 1d illustrates the  $\text{H}_2$  evolution from long-term (42 h) photocatalytic reaction containing the CPDs-CN catalysts. The  $\text{H}_2$  evolution remained stable at an approximate rate of  $33.9 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$  for 42 h without a rate decay ( $R^2 = 0.9996$ ). The result identified the stability of the material, which

contributed to the stable transport of photogenerated electrons.

Indeed, semiconductor  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  possess the characteristics of outstanding stability resistant to photo-induced decomposition in aqueous system. After 12 h of illumination in aqueous system, no liquid products were detected according to  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra (Fig. 2a). Furthermore, XRD results in Fig. 2b showed that the two characteristic diffraction peaks at  $13.0^\circ$  and  $27.8^\circ$  attributed to the (100) crystal plane of the in-plane repeating tri-s-thiazine units and the (002) crystal plane of the stacking of the conjugated aromatic structure, respectively, were detected, signifying structural stability of CPDs-CN catalyst in aqueous system under irradiation.

#### 3.2. Characterization of the photocatalysts

It was revealed that loading of CPDs on  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  can largely increase the catalytic performance. The remarkable features of CPDs promote us to elucidate better understanding of the complex. A series of experiments were carried out. Primarily, CPDs were designed and synthesized using multifunctional molecules citric acid (CA) and ethylenediamine (EDA) as precursors [35]. Polymer clusters were first formed due to the condensation and crosslinking [41]. Through further dehydration and carbonization, polymer/carbon hybrid structure of CPDs was formed [17,42]. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images show that CPDs are graphitic with average diameters of 1.9 nm (Fig. S2). Lattice

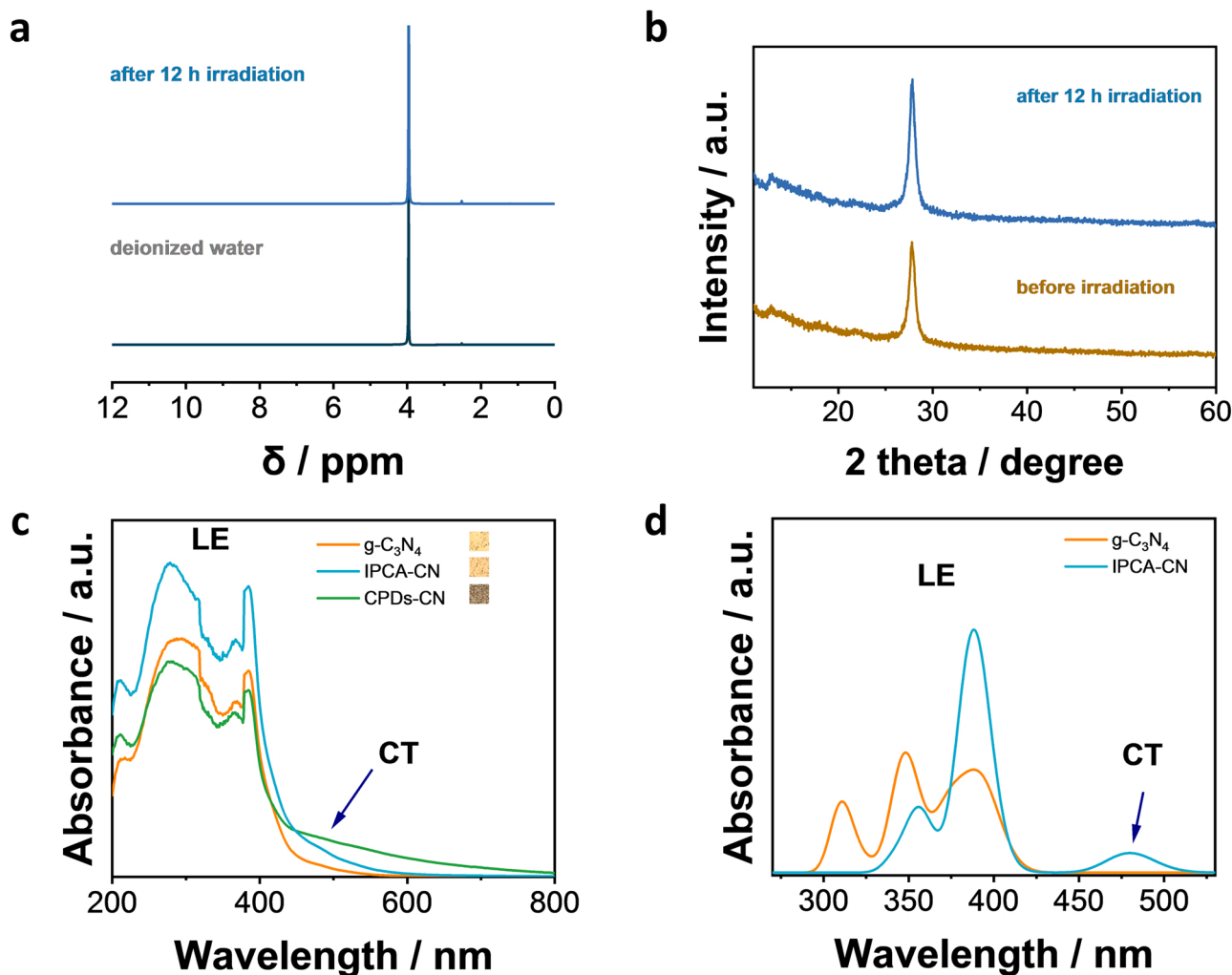


Fig. 2. a)  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra of liquid product before and after 12 h of irradiation over CPDs-CN catalyst. b) XRD patterns of CPDs-CN catalyst before and after 12 h of irradiation. c) UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra of  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ , IPCA-CN and CPDs-CN. Insets: digital photographs of the corresponding samples. d) Calculated absorbance from Gaussian calculations of  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  and IPCA-CN.



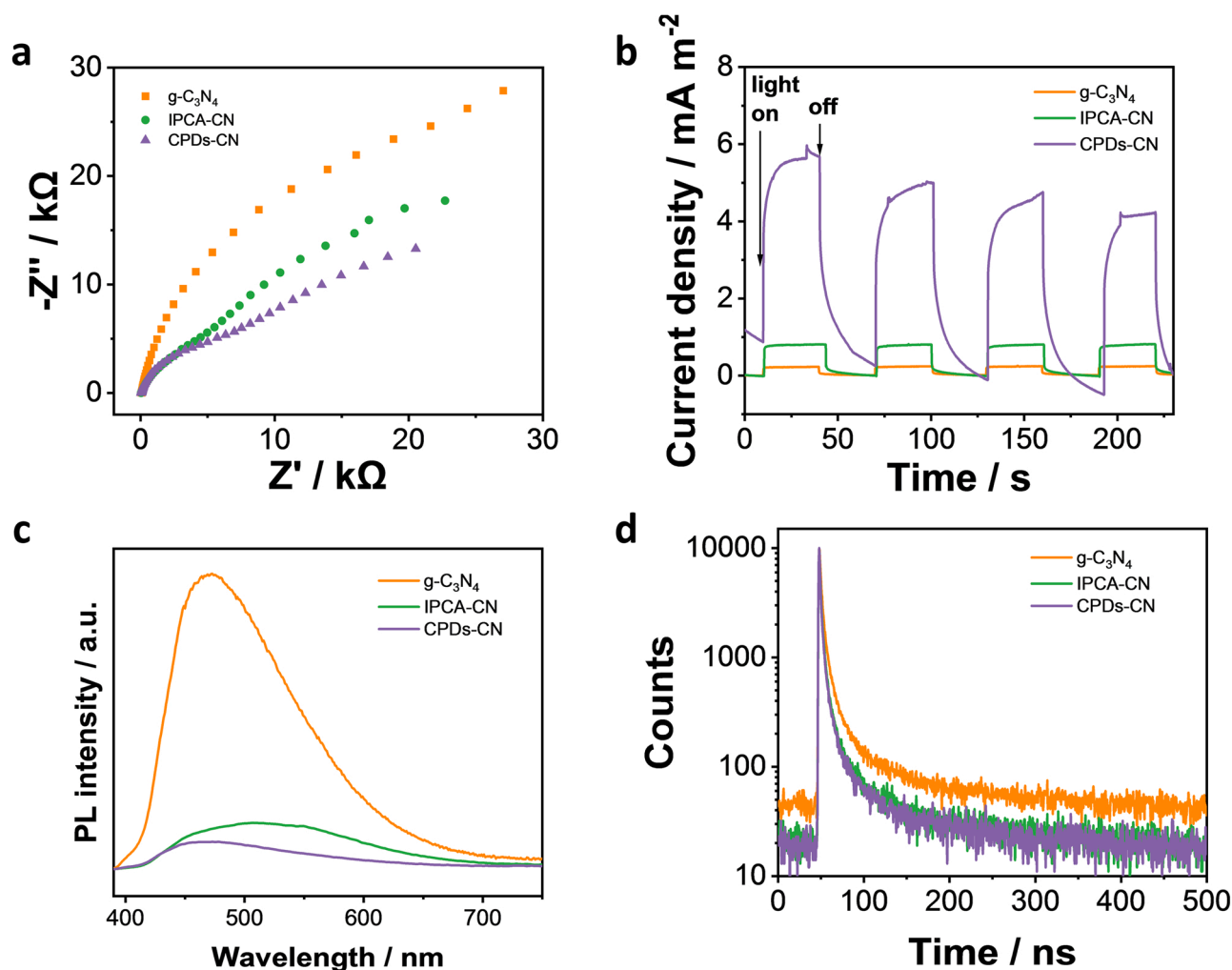
fringes of 2.1 Å allow the assignments of the (100) intralayer spacings. In the UV-Vis spectra (Fig. S3), the peaks focused on 240 and 340 nm were assigned to the intrinsic absorption bands originating from the  $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$  electron transition of the  $sp^2$  hybridization conjugated aromatic rings (C=C); new absorption bands were ascribed to the  $n \rightarrow \pi^*$  electron transition of the lone pair electrons (C=O), respectively [43]. XPS spectrum suggests that CPDs consist of graphitic  $sp^2$  cores (C=C) and C-N moieties, decorated with hydroxyl (C-OH) and carboxylate functionalities (C=O), providing them with good solubility in water (Fig. S4) [44].

To prove the efficient combination of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> with CPDs, TEM and XPS were performed. The TEM result of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> was a two-dimensional layered structure (Fig. S5). In contrast, experimental data indicated that CPDs with ~1.6 nm diameters were anchored on the surface of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> after the hydrothermal treatment (Fig. S6). Compared with g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (Fig. S7), C 1s spectra were deconvoluted into four peaks for CPDs-CN-3. The peak at 287.1 eV was originated from C=O groups (Fig. S8 and Table S2). Another peak at 397.8 eV in N 1s spectra (Fig. S8 and Table S3) was assigned to amide groups (N-C=O). Furthermore, the O 1s can be matched to N-C=O, C-OH and O<sub>ads</sub>, while the fitting peak ascribed to carboxyl groups disappeared (Fig. S8 and Table S4). Similarly, XPS spectrum of IPCA-CN was performed, and the carboxyl groups were proved to be nonexistent (Fig. S9 and Tables S2–S4). The presence of carboxyl groups in CPDs-CN-7 proved that these were the remaining groups of the reaction (Fig. S10 and Tables S2–S4). Based on the reaction

of carboxyl group and amino group, the carboxyl group from CPDs or IPCA can react with the amino group from g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>. The results revealed that the composites were incorporated with g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> by chemical amide bonds [45].

### 3.3. The mechanism of the photocatalytic reaction

Additionally, the CPDs-CN complex displayed a broad and largely featureless absorption across the near-UV tailing into the visible region above 800 nm according to UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra (Fig. 2c) [16]. Thus, the incorporation of CPDs may extend the spectral responsive range and deepen color from light yellow to dark brown. In order to explore the mechanism of broadening absorption spectrum by the introduction of CPDs, the structure characteristics of CPDs were carefully studied. First, we noticed that the molecule IPCA on the surface of CPDs considerably contributes to the light absorbance in CPDs (Fig. S3) [46]. Thus, we assume that the broadening of absorption originates from the surface molecule IPCA. To confirm the effect of IPCA on the spectrum broadening, a comparative experiment with IPCA-CN was conducted. The as-prepared IPCA-CN shows a similar absorption band which greatly confirms our assumption (Fig. 2c). To further prove this assumption, we constructed the model systems of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and IPCA-CN (Fig. 1a) and the DFT calculations on the UV-vis spectra were carried out for comparison (Fig. 2d and Fig. S11). The results reveal that both g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and IPCA-CN showed a large absorption band at ~ 300–430 nm



**Fig. 3.** a) The EIS Nyquist plots. b) The photocurrent–time dependence under chopped illumination with 30 s light on/off cycles. Steady-state fluorescence spectra (c) and fluorescence decay curves (d) of as-prepared samples.

corresponding to the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> local excitation (LE) (Fig. 2d and Fig. S11), which is in consistent with experimental observation (Fig. 2c). In IPCA-CN, a new absorption peak was observed at around 480 nm in comparison with g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and the natural transition orbitals (NTO) analysis suggested that the origin of this new peak was characterized as the charge transfer (CT) from IPCA to g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (Fig. S12). This is in well agreement with the observed broadening absorption band at around 410–600 nm in CPDs-CN and IPCA-CN.

Furthermore, efficient charge separation and transfer are necessary for photocatalytic reactions [47–49]. The electron chemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) technique was used to probe the charge-transfer properties of the catalysts. EIS spectra show that CPDs-CN and IPCA-CN possess a smaller semicircle radius than g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 3a), indicating that a lower charge-transfer resistance in the composites, which ensures the faster transfer of carriers [11]. Time-dependent photo-response curves of these samples were tested with intermittent irradiation. In Fig. 3b, the photocurrent density of CPDs-CN and IPCA-CN is higher than that of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, strongly suggesting superior charge generation property compared to g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>. Photoluminescence (PL) was employed to further study the recombination abilities of photoexcited electron-hole pairs. A low PL intensity revealed the lower photoinduced charge carriers' recombination. As shown in Fig. 3c, the PL emission intensity of CPDs-CN was the lowest among all the samples with an excitation wavelength at 365 nm, which indicating that the recombination of photogenerated charge carriers was inhibited in the IPCA-CN and CPDs-CN composites. Fig. 3d showed the fluorescence decay curves of as-prepared samples. The calculated average lifetime values of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, IPCA-CN and CPDs-CN were 21.8, 15.9 and 13.5 ns, respectively. The conclusions suggested that the introduction of IPCA and CPDs retarded the carriers recombination and enhanced the possibility of charge carriers participating in photocatalytic water splitting. Synchronous-illumination X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy was used to directly study the photoinduced charge separation and transfer pathways of CPDs-CN [50,51]. Synchronous light irradiation identical to that used for photocatalytic reactions did not evidently shift O 1s peaks (Fig. S13), but shifted the positions of triazine ring in C 1s and N 1s peaks (by –0.1 and 0.2 eV, respectively, Fig. 4a,b). This result confirmed an increase in the electron density on the N–C=N moieties of triazine rings and the decrease in the electron density on N atoms. These binding energy shifts provided direct evidence of the charge carrier migration pathway. The remarkable properties of CPDs-CN were expected to ameliorate charge separation. As a result, the redistribution of e<sup>–</sup> and h<sup>+</sup> markedly minimized their energy-wasteful recombination and enhanced the photoactivity.

The Mulliken charges of the selected atoms in the considered models

of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and IPCA-CN were calculated and listed (Figs. S14–15, Tables S5–6). The results indicate that the incorporation of IPCA can tune the charges of its chemically bonded 3-s-triazine unit in g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> through amide linkage, effectively, which makes g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> more negative (–1.857 for g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, –2.025 for IPCA-CN, respectively). Upon the adsorption with H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup>, the Mulliken charge analysis was also performed (Figs. S16–17, Tables S7–8). The result reveals that IPCA-CN contributes to decreasing charge of H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> (0.841 for g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>@H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup>, 0.196 for IPCA-CN@H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup>, respectively), which favors the enhancement of photocatalytic proton reduction to H<sub>2</sub>.

The schematic diagrams for the excitation and energy transfer pathways of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>@H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> and IPCA-CN@H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> complexes from frontier orbital point of view were showed in Fig. 5a,b. The excitation energies, configurations and oscillator strengths are collected in Table 1 and Table 2. For g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>@H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup>, the highest occupied Kohn-Sham orbital (HOKS) and the second lowest unoccupied Kohn-Sham orbital (LUKS+1) were located around the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> region, while the lowest unoccupied Kohn-Sham orbital (LUKS) was belonged to H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup>. The computed oscillator strength of LE with the value of 0.0025 was much larger than the value 0.0002 of charge transfer (CT) excitation indicating that the charge transfer (CT) state in g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>@H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> could not be generated directly and the excited state energy transfer (ET) from LE state to CT state was suggested as the favorable pathway for g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>@H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> as shown in Fig. 5a. In IPCA-CN@H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup>, (HOKS) and (LUKS) were attributed to IPCA and H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup>, respectively, the (HOKS–1) and (LUKS+1) were located on the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> region. Thus, three CT states were found besides LE state as shown in Table 2. Note that the CT1 state corresponding to the IPCA to g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> charge transfer excitation had the largest oscillator strength of 0.0133 which was much larger than the oscillator strength of 0.0021 for LE state and a new absorption band of 579.54 nm was found in IPCA-CN@H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup>. More importantly, the introduction of IPCA into g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> could enhance the electron-hole separation due to the higher orbital energy of IPCA, as a result, the electron density of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> could be increased by additional electron source from IPCA. It is interesting to note that the oscillator strength of CT2 with the value of 0.0056 was also larger than the LE oscillator strength of 0.0021. This indicates that IPCA could also increase the charge transfer excitation to H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> in comparison with the pristine g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>. Consequently, the favorable electron transfer pathway in IPCA-CN@H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> could follow the IPCA → g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> → H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> procedure as shown in Fig. 5b, and IPCA could be denoted as an active site to increase the electron density on the surface of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> as well as H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> which will improve the catalytic efficiency of H<sub>2</sub> generation. Based on all the results from the theoretical calculations and experimental observations, the introduction of CPDs on the surface of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> could improve the reduction of H<sup>+</sup> and more

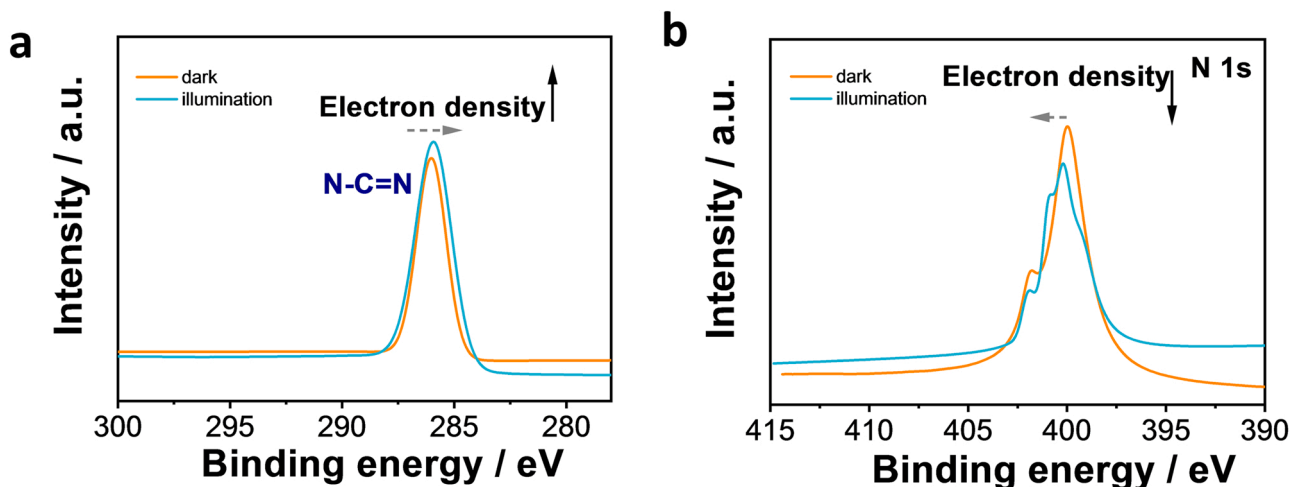
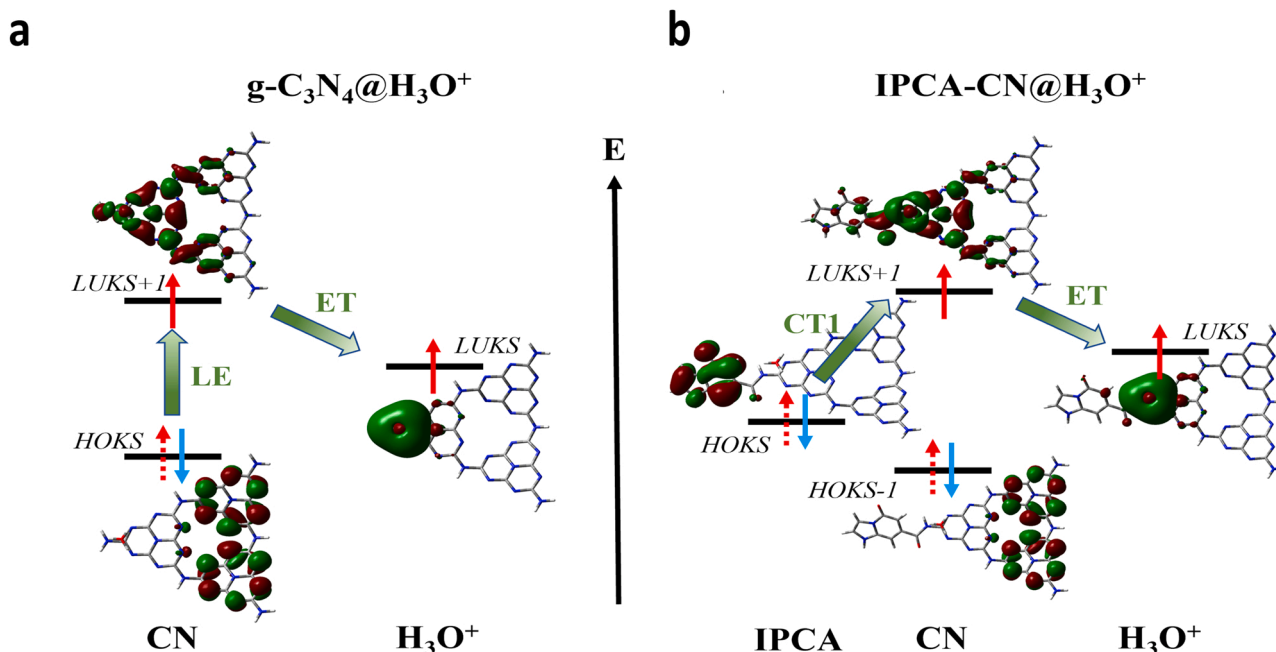


Fig. 4. Synchronous-illumination X-ray photoelectron spectra of (c) N–C=N in the triazine rings and (d) N 1s.



**Fig. 5.** The schematic diagrams of the energy profile of excitation and energy transfer for (a)  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4@\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$  and (b)  $\text{IPCA-CN}@\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$ . LE and CT are local excitation and charge transfer excitation, respectively. HOKS and LUKS denote highest occupied Kohn-Sham orbital and lowest unoccupied Kohn-Sham orbital, respectively.

**Table 1**

The computed excitation energies ( $\Delta E$ ), configurations (Conf.) and oscillator strength ( $f$ ) of local excitation (LE) and charger transfer (CT) states for  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4@\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$  complex.

	LE	CT
$\Delta E$	483.56 nm	775.76 nm
Conf.	$(\text{HOKS})^1 \rightarrow (\text{LUKS}+1)^1$	$(\text{HOKS})^1 \rightarrow (\text{LUKS})^1$
$f$	0.0025	0.0002

**Table 2**

The computed excitation energies ( $\Delta E$ ), configurations (Conf.) and oscillator strength ( $f$ ) of local excitation (LE) and charger transfer (CT) states for  $\text{IPCA-CN}@\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$  complex.

	LE	CT1	CT2	CT3
$\Delta E$	506.97 nm	579.54 nm	735.84 nm	1023.46 nm
Conf.	$(\text{HOKS}+1)^1 \rightarrow (\text{LUKS}+1)^1$	$(\text{HOKS})^1 \rightarrow (\text{LUKS}+1)^1$	$(\text{HOKS}+1)^1 \rightarrow (\text{LUKS})^1$	$(\text{HOKS})^1 \rightarrow (\text{LUKS})^1$
$f$	0.0021	0.0133	0.0004	0.0056

conductive to the release of  $\text{H}_2$  than  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ .

#### 4. Conclusion

In summary, we report the design and synthesis of  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ , IPCA- $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  and CPDs- $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  hybrid catalysts. Upon the hybridization with IPCA and CPDs, improved photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2$  production rates of  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  were observed ( $1172 \pm 39$ ;  $2150 \pm 92$  vs.  $828 \pm 121 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ , respectively). The DFT calculations further unraveled that electron transfer pathway in  $\text{IPCA-CN}@\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$  followed  $\text{IPCA} \rightarrow \text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4 \rightarrow \text{H}_3\text{O}^+$  procedure. As a result, we substantially reveal that the surface molecule IPCA of CPDs essentially enhanced the catalytic activity for solar-driven  $\text{H}_2$  production in a CPDs-CN system. Molecular IPCA is conducive to extending the light-responsive range and redistributing of photo-induced electron-hole pairs and thus markedly minimizes the energy-wasteful recombination for enhanced photoactivity. This study offers novel insights in utilizing surface molecule to investigate the role of

CPDs and how the structure of CPDs contributing to the photocatalytic efficiency, and opens a new avenue towards the design of next generation photocatalysts in future development.

#### CRediT authorship contribution statement

**Mei Han:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing – original draft, Data curation. **Chunyu Kang:** Software, Writing – original draft, Data curation. **Zexing Qu:** Conceptualization, Software, Formal analysis, Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Shoujun Zhu:** Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing. **Bai Yang:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

#### Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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#### Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2022.121064.

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